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ABSTRACT

Many local education agencies, as well as independent school districts, are currently designing induction programs for beginning teachers. One feature of these induction programs is the appointment of a mentor or sponsor teacher. This review is designed to summarize existing literature from the teaching profession on the mentoring relationship in order to assist educators in enhancing induction programs. A review of pertinent research concerning the mentoring phenomenon provides education professionals interested in initiating a "mentor teacher" or "sponsor teacher" program with an important resource. This paper focuses on three major areas: the concept of mentoring and its theoretical foundations, mentorial activities as they relate to teachers and induction programs, and the nature of the mentor-protege relationship in professions other than education. Overviews are provided of studies of mentoring in schools and induction programs that incorporate the mentoring relationship. Information is included on: (1) the characteristics and functions of the mentor; (2) selecting and attracting a mentor; (3) the interpersonal relationship; (4) the character of the mentor-protege relationship; (5) precautions in engaging in the mentor-protege relationship; (6) what and how proteges learn from mentors; and (7) guidelines for formal and informal mentor programs. (JD)

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MENTORING: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE WITH A FOCUS ON TEACHING

Cleta Galvez-Hjornevik

April, 1985

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Mentoring: A Review of the Literature

With a Focus on Teaching

Introduction

The most critical year for classroom teachers is the first--the beginning year. In this year beginning teachers, who may have romantic attitudes and consequently unrealistic expectations, engage in either a successful and rewarding experience or a painful, frustrating and terminal one (Compton, 1979, p. 23). Bush (1978, p. 3) defined the first year of teaching as the most critical period in a teacher's career:

> ...the conditions under which a person carries out the first years of teaching have a strong influence on the level of effectiveness which that teacher is able to achieve and sustain over the years; on the attitudes which govern teachers' behavior over even a forty year career; and, indeed, on the decision whether or not to continue in the teaching profession (Bush, 1978, p. 3).

Frederick J. McDonald states a similar view in the recent ETS study, "the development of a teacher is shaped or determined by what happens to the teacher during the transition period" (McDonald, 1980, p. 25).

Recognizing the beginning teacher is faced with sometimes insurmountable challenges, many local education agencies, as well as independent school districts, are currently designing induction programs. One feature of these induction programs is the appointment of a mentor or sponsor teacher. This review is designed to summarize existing literature from the teaching profession on the mentoring relationship in order to assist educators in enhancing induction programs. A review of pertinent research concerning the mentoring phenomenon provides education professionals interested in initiating a "mentor teacher" or "sponsor

teacher" program with an important resource. This paper focuses on three major areas: the concept of mentoring and its theoretical foundations, mentorial activities as they relate to teachers and induction programs, and the nature of the mentor-protege relationship in professions other than education. Due to the limited research produced in the education arena concerning mentoring among teachers, foundation studies from the business and adult development disciplines were consulted. A focus was maintained, however, on research which would have relevance in school settings. Linda Cox states in "Adaptive Mentoring" (1984, p. 56) that: "In fields such as education and business where the human resource is the most valuable asset, there is much overlap in the relevance of this process [management strategy]."

The Need for Assistance for Beginning Teachers

There is little doubt there is a profound need for assistance for beginning teachers. McDonald notes that for most new teachers, "surviving is the paramount goal, and the beginning teacher is likely to adopt the practices that help him or her survive" (McDonald, 1980, p. 23). Lortie (1975) recognizes that teaching seems to be the only profession where "the beginner becomes fully responsible from the first working day and performs the same tasks as a 25-year veteran." Janet Newberry (1977) in an investigation of how 23 beginning teachers learn about their chosen profession, concludes their education was largely dependent on experienced teachers around them. Newberry provides major findings in reference to the beginning teachers.

The study notes that beginning teachers relied on experienced teachers to define for them appropriate standards for student achievement (Newberry, 1977, p. 19). Generally, beginning teachers hesitated to seek help unless

they felt safe that their competence would not be questioned. For example, new teachers did not seem to feel they should know what to expect from their students, and therefore, they felt free to consult with experienced teachers about defining normal student achievement. Through staff room discussions, beginning teachers educated themselves on standards they could expect in their respective classrooms. Frequent consultation with experienced teachers were on the following topics: (a) the level of achievement of the beginning teacher's students, (b) what skills ought to be mastered by certain times of the year, (c) whether certain standards of work fell within the normal range, and (d) what kind and level of difficulty of work would be required by teachers at the next grade level (Newberry, 1977, p. 4-5).

Prevalent among beginning teachers was the fear of being thought incompetent as they were constantly faced with the expectation of performing as experienced teachers. This expectation apparently caused beginning teachers to feel that any requests for assistance would be interpreted as signs of incompetence. Therefore, beginning teachers asked for assistance on "safe," minor problems. Newberry describes the problem(s):

> They asked experienced teachers for suggestions for physical education or phonic games. They asked advice on textbooks; they asked how to organize field trips. They asked specific questions that could be answered easily and quickly. In other words, organizational arrangements and the beginning teachers' own attitudes combined to create the myth of the instantaneously competent teacher who needs minimal help in developing an effective teaching program. (Newberry, 1977, p. 11)

Experienced teachers, on the other hand, were hesitant to offer assistance to beginners for fear of appearing interfering (Newberry, 1977,

p. 19). Not only did many experienced teachers wish not to interfere, but some indicated they did not desire to be involved in the problems of beginning teachers (Newberry, 1977, p. 6). One beginning teacher stated that in her school "teaching methods were never discussed, that she did not know what the other teachers were doing, and that she was quite sure that they did not care what she was doing." Other beginning teachers reported that experienced teachers remained detached from them (Newberry, 1977, p. 6-7).

Like the Newberry study, Roger S. Compton's (1977) study reveals similar frustration experienced by beginning teachers. One teacher states:

> I needed help in disciplining students. A new teacher in the _____ school system is expected to rely totally on his own resources. It is strictly a 'sink or swim' situation. Life is tough in this school and that attitude is extended toward teaching. Everyone is 'too busy' to give an encouraging word. As one administrator told me, "You asked for this job--we didn't ask you." (Compton, 1979, p. 24)

Without direct help from the experienced teachers, the novice learned by watching and listening, in and out of classrooms. New teachers did not know how their programs compared to those of other teachers, as they never had an opportunity to see experienced teachers in action, and furthermore, experienced teachers seldom described their activities in classrooms. Beginning teachers in Newberry's study, however, were acquiring information concerning practices and beliefs of experienced teachers. The acquisition of knowledge was informal as they watched and interacted with teachers outside actual classroom situations. Their methodology entailed (a) listening to comments in the staff room and looking at materials brought in by experienced teachers, (b) listening to comments and investigating

materials at the duplicating machine, and (c) looking through open classroom doors or visiting other teachers' classrooms before or after school. The indirect manner of observing the experienced teacher informed the beginner about the kind of work the faculty was engaged in and the techniques they used (Newberry, 1977, p. 14).

Newberry observed that wh never close relationships did develop between beginning and experienced teachers, they were always between teachers of the same grade, whose classrooms were located across from or beside each other, and whose teaching ideologies were compatible. Despite the barriers that most beginning and experienced teachers experienced, there appeared to be certain circumstances under which very close professional relationships could be established. Consciously, the novice searched for an experienced resource teacher who taught the same grade and in a manner similar to their own. If a person was identified who was consistent with the stated criteria, the beginning teacher had identified a possible source of professional support and guidance for the year. If, however, these two criteria could not be filled by the same person, the beginning teacher abandoned hope of finding a source of extended assistance from the faculty (Newberry, 1977, p. 5). Newberry, through her study, justifies the need for a carefully planned induction program for beginning teachers.

The Derivation of the Mentor Concept

In many current programs, experienced teachers are being utilized to aid beginning teachers and have been identified as "mentor teachers." The arbitrary specification of some support teachers as "mentor teachers" is unsubstantiated in light of the historical significance of the term. "Mentor" was derived from Homer's Odyssey, wherein Athene took the image of Mentor, Ulysses' loyal friend, and was given responsibility for nurturing

Telemachus (Ulysses's son) when his father ventured off to fight the Trojan War. Therefore, the term "mentor" historically denotes a trusted guide and counselor, and the mentor-protege relationship, a deep and meaningful association. In his book, James G. Clawson admonishes, however, that the relationship between Mentor and Telemachus was not an easy one. He states "...it was Mentor's difficult task to help Telemachus see the error in his judgment in a way that would allow the young protege to grow in wisdom and not in rebellion" (1980, pp. 145-146). In light of its historical connotation, the unbound use of the term "mentor" for teachers in induction programs is incorrect, or at least not totally accurate. Edgar Schein (1978, p. 178) has resolved that the term, mentor, today has been used loosely to mean teacher, coach, trainer, positive role model, developer of talent, opener of doors, protector, sponsor, and successful leader.

The business discipline has produced the greatest number of articles and data-based studies on mentoring wherein the concept is explored from the perspective of career development (Merriam, 1983, p. 163). However, (contrary to Schein) this literature often distinguishes the terms--mentor, coach, or sponsor. The Woodlands Group in Texas, for example, emphasizes this difference. In coaching, a "boss" helps the subordinate meet specific growth needs, relying on a rich interpersonal relationship as well as performance appraisals, career planning, and assessment centers. The wide range of managerial tasks for coaches include such activities as setting challenging tasks for subordinates, keeping subordinates clearly informed of what is expected and of the progress towards each goal, and appraising subordinates regularly and objectively (The Woodlands Group, 1980, p. 918).

"Sponsors" as distinguished from coaches, are likely to make statements like "Susan Grey would be a big help on this," or "Let's put young Vargas on

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that task force." Whereas coaches prepare individuals for current assignments, sponsors discover and foster individuals for enhanced placement in other parts of the organization. In order to perform their function, sponsors gain access to knowledge about new openings and new programs as well as: get people assigned to task forces or committees, and called into meetings, mention people with potential for special or existing openings, and apply subtle pressure to get proteges considered or placed (The Woodlands Group, 1980, p. 919). In short, sponsors must be generous, command credibility, be insightful, and influential. Sponsors as "people pickers" recruit new talent yet risk negative consequences as peers resent those who have "robbed" them of high talent subordinates or are criticized for proteges who do not succeed. Therefore, some sponsors withdraw from this precarious role. Far deeper and more significant are the roles of the mentor and protege. The Woodlands Group concludes, "Sponsors are press agents; mentors are everything implied in the definition 'trusted counselor and guide' (1980, p. 919-920).

It is evident is that the definition and role of mentor varies among authors. Linda Phillip-Jones, who conducted doctoral research on the mentor-protege relationship, offered the following clarifications:

1. Traditional Mentor. These "classic" mentors are usually older bosses, although they can also be teachers, producers or even family members who serve as protectors and parent figures for their proteges. They play a very supportive role, nurturing their proteges for a long period of time.

2. Supportive Bosses. The most common type of modern-day career mentor is the supportive boss. Almost all successful people have had at least one or two such persons in their lives. This mentor will

usually be your immediate boss, but it's a role that can be played by anyone in a direct supervisor position over you, such as teacher, coach or director.

3. Organization Sponsors. The organization sponsor is the man or woman who, unlike the typical supportive boss, has reached the top echelon of management. In that position of power, he or she has a major say in deciding if you'll be among the chosen few promoted to these coveted ranks. Most presidents of the giant U.S. corporations have had this type of sponsor in their lives.

4. Professional Career Mentors - these are the people you can go out and hire to improve your career.

5. Patrons - patrons are the people who use their money or other material clout - and often their standing in the community - to launch you on your way.

6. Invisible Godparent. Invisible godparents are people who directly help you reach your career goals without your knowing it. (Phillip-Jones, 1982, p.22-24)

Phillip-Jones' research provides clear definitions of mentoring, however, the terminology differs somewhat in the education arena. A common ground is shared, however, among education and other professions when considering the theoretical foundation for mentoring.

The Theoretical Foundation for the Mentor-Protege Relationship

Crucial to understanding the mentoring phenomenon is its theoretical base in adult development. Researchers in this discipline have sought to describe the complexities of the mentor-protege relationship and to emphasize its importance in the maturation of adults (Merriam, 1980, p. 162). The focus of the majority of this research is career development and

the characteristics of a workplace mentor, mentorship as a factor in upward mobility, and mentoring as a process in organizational development (Cook & Bennett, 1981, p. 1). The leading study--Daniel Levinson's Seasons of a Man's Life--is an extensive research project wherein he studied 40 men between the age of 35 and 45 to trace their adulthood. Levinson saw the role of the mentor as multifaceted with an emphasis on the necessity "to support and facilitate the realization of the dream" of the protege (1978, p. 98). Levinson states: The true mentor...fosters the young adult's development by believing in him, sharing the youthful Dream and giving it his blessing, helping to define the newly emerging self in its newly discovered world, and creating a space in which the young man can work on a reasonably satisfactory life structure that contains the Dream (Levinson, 1978, p. 98-99). In Levinson's small sample, the most successful men had had mentors as young adults whom they sought out in their early adult stage (N.B. Levinson's Seasons in Appendix A). Breda Murphy Bova and Rebecca R. Phillips' (1982) study reinforces Levinson's findings as 40 of the 67 males who claimed mentoring said they became proteges during the early adult phase of their life cycle whereas the others sought a mentor during the mid-life transition (often the result of a career change) (p. 6).

C. Edward Weber, like Levinson, claims that mentoring supports and encourages the protege in "actualizing" career dreams; however, in reality, mentors and proteges do not speak of dreams but instead of "hopes, objectives, plans, events, and actions" (1980, p. 20). Weber warns that mentoring relationships may present hazards. Mentors, for example, may be unfulfilled individuals:

> Thus, they may see in their proteges a chance to be reborn, to live vicariously through an alter ego, to recreate themselves in an attempt

to gain a sort of corporate immortality. They may yearn for the son or daughter they never had, or who, having grown up, has left them. (Weber, 1980, p. 23)

The protege may also work on either emotional or rational motives:

> If the protege enters into the relationship for purely rational reasons--because it holds out the promise of career advancement--the relationship may end unhappily when the protege asks, in effect, "OK, what will you do for me now?" (Weber, 1980, p. 23)

Furthermore, the protege who forms an attachment based on emotion may utilize the relationship to compensate for an unhappy childhood or the mentor as a parent figure (Weber, 1980, p. 23).

Mentoring, important for the protege's growth, is also significant for the maturation of the senior participant. Adult growth is enhanced at midlife in order to redirect one's energies into creative and productive action that can be responsive to salient concerns (Kram, 1983, p. 609). Merriam states:

> This ability to give to the next generation is reminiscent of Erikson's (1950) middle-age period of adult development in which the psycho-social tasks for midlife is to resolve the issue of generativity versus stagnation. Generativity is a concern for and an interest in guiding the next generation... Clearly, mentoring is one manifestation of this mid-life task. (Merriam, 1984, p. 163).

Kathy Kram notes that "Individuals may feel challenged, stimulated, and creative in providing mentoring functions as they become "senior adults" with wisdom to share (1983, p. 609). Schmidt and Wolfe (1980) suggest that mentorship is one way in which older workers may understand the significance of their lives and professional contributions.

These studies suggest that young persons seek out a mentor in the "early adult phase" of their career in order to define their newly emerging self and create their space in the world of work. The mentor, in turn, will more than likely be challenged by the helping process and may better recognize the accomplishments of their career. In school contexts, the beginning teacher, often in the "young adult phase," is seeking to establish his/her person in the school. A mentor association can assist these teachers in the critical period of maturation in the adult world of work. The next section of the paper reviews studies of mentoring in education.

Mentoring Among Elementary and Secondary Teachers

Studies of Mentoring in Schools

Though research in education settings is quite limited, a few studies have been published which focus on teacher-teacher relationships and the phenomenon of mentoring in elementary and secondary school. These studies were conducted by Natalie Gehrke and Richard S. Kay (1984) and Michael Fagan and Glen Walters (1982). Michael Fagan conducted a survey which asked 107 public school teachers and a comparison group of 70 police officers and 87 nurses to evaluate and report their experiences as mentors and proteges in informal relationships. Employing a liberal definition of mentor as "an experienced adult who befriends and guides a less experienced adult...one who can offer support, advice, and opportunity to a young adult," the researchers designed their study to assess the frequency and nature of mentoring in teaching and to examine relationships among job satisfaction, job burnout, and an assortment of poorly defined personal characteristics and skills such as "tactfulness" and "learning how to work with people." The design of the Fagan/Walters study is questionable because the authors failed to demonstrate a convincing rationale for comparing experiences of

police officers, nurses, and teachers. These authors leave their reader with one vague notion, that mentoring based on their own boundless definition was prevalent among public high school teachers. The authors did, however, offer what appears to be useful recommendations to school administrators who want to increase mentoring among faculty:

1. Teach novice and veteran teachers the importance of mentoring.
2. Reinforce veteran teachers who show a sincere interest in helping beginners. Praise, extra training, time off, and pay raises might be effective reinforcers.
3. Arrange the working environment so it is conducive to senior and junior teachers becoming friends. Allow time for social exchange within the work day and promote off-work social activities (e.g., bowling team, bridge club, etc.) so that young teachers will become friends with more experienced teachers.

(Fagan & Walters, 1982, p. 117)

The authors, reluctant to assert that specific mentoring relationships can actually be arranged successfully, due to "the chemistry factor," suggest nevertheless that formal programs may be "worth trying". For a formal program they advise:

> For example, administrators could ask second and third year teachers to indicate who helped them most in learning the job. Those mentioned as most helpful could be asked to volunteer to be a sponsor or a coach for recently hired teachers. Beginners could be assigned to a coach for their first year. Hopefully, the novice would relate well to the coach and learn from him or her. (Fagan & Walters, 1982, p. 117)

Natalie J. Gehrke and Richard S. Kay (1984) investigated the presence of mentoring among teachers and the nature of the mentored relationships. A

sample of 300 teachers from 12 schools (three high schools, three middle schools, and six elementary schools) was drawn from a large western suburban school district and teachers were asked to complete a short questionnaire concerning their careers in teaching. These authors cautiously used the term mentor to denote relationships which were "positive" and healthy, and distinguished the more neutral term, sponsor, for those whose relationships were less "benign." The authors state:

> One part of the questionnaire asked if at any stage in their career or career preparation there had been anyone outside the family who had taken a personal interest in their careers and had helped, guided or sponsored them. One hundred eighty-eight teachers responded to the questionnaire and 111 indicated having known such a person. (p. 22)

Forty-one teachers of the 111 who claimed a mentor were interviewed and said their mentors were college professors/supervisors, school principals, followed by former teachers, and co-workers. Only three teachers named a fellow teacher or co-worker as a mentor and no teacher named a co-operating teacher. The most frequently filled roles (as identified by Schein, 1978) included confident, role model, developer of talents, and sponsor. "Door opener" was described by four teachers, "protector" by two, and "successful leader" by no one (Gehrke & Kay, 1984, p. 22).

Gehrke and Kay also focused on the question of how mentor-protege relationships develop in the school setting:

> ...teachers said the relationship began when they came into contact with the potential mentor in an educational setting such as a class or their first teaching assignment. Reports of the teachers suggest that the relationships began with signals from the potential mentor that they were "taking an interest" in the teacher. Such behavior as

frequent and apparently friendly visits to the classroom, joking, informal conversation, and encouraging remarks were seen as this special attention labelled "taking an interest".

(Gehrke & Kay, 1984, p. 22)

Findings indicate the mentor and protege came together for a specific purpose (e.g., "teacher training"), and when that purpose was accomplished, the relationship disbanded--"there was not structure for continued personal contact" (Gehrke & Kay, 1984, p. 22). The authors imply the relationships underwent change as they matured:

> ...as the relationship continued to develop it became more professional and more personal--in other words, it did grow to be more comprehensive. The relationship was more informal and caring as between two friends, and yet it was more likely to address professional growth questions in instructional, curricular, and classroom management issues.
>
> (Gehrke & Kay, 1984, p. 23)

Not neglected in the survey was an analysis of the potential benefits of mentoring relationship: one-fourth of the teachers claimed they would not have made the same career decisions had it not been for their mentors; the majority of the teachers said they believed that finding a mentor was important to a teaching career; and, all but one indicated a desire to be a mentor. The authors conclude "...there may be a kind of legacy of mentors or sponsors--an increased willingness to assume the helper's roles when one has been so helped." Despite the contestations of the surveyed teachers to become mentors, Gehrke and Kay disclose that few teachers become mentors for other teachers at any point in the preparation and induction period. The authors ask: "Does this mean that the impediments--spatial, temporal,

psychosocial, organizational, or whatever--are too difficult to overcome?" (Gehrke & Kay, 1984, p. 23-24). The literature presented here is significant if only to make educators aware that mentoring among teachers does exist to a limited extent.

Induction Programs That Incorporate the Mentoring Relationship

Limited literature exists in the Psych or ERIC data base which describes current induction programs in schools. However, educators seeking to establish a mentoring program in their school district will benefit from noting the nature of existing programs and recommendatory articles by others. The mentor programs reviewed are limited to those accessible in the ERIC data base.

Richard Tisher (1979) along with other educators, school districts and state departments of education have recognized the need for effective induction programs (see N.B. Zeichner's "Capsule Description of Eleven Selected Beginning Teacher Programs in Appendix B). Tisher states: " The nature of the educational setting, contacts with peers and types of induction experiences" are among influential features in enhancing professional development (Tisher, 1979, p.3).

Phillip C. Schlechty (1984) claims the purpose of induction is "to develop in new members of an occupation those skills, forms of knowledge, attitudes, and values that are necessary to effectively carry out their occupational role." He verifies the primary aim of induction is "to create conditions that cause new members to internalize the norms of the occupation to the point that the primary means of social control (i.e., control over performance) is self-control" (p. 1). Schlechty implies mentor relationships in his description of effective systems:

> Occupations with the most effective induction systems rely greatly on intensive clinical supervision demonstrating coaching and constant corrective feedback by real practitioners in real situations (1984, p. 9).

The mentoring relationship comes under the umbrella of Schlechty's definition of effective induction systems which he illustrates by utilizing the Career Development Program (CDP) of the Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools. The purpose of the CDP plan at Charlotte-Mecklenburg was to develop the capacity of new teachers to comply with the system's performance expectations. Beginning teachers, through mandatory participation in sequential training activities, were made aware of the literature on effective teaching and were given opportunity for practice and demonstration of effective teaching skills with peers, experienced teachers, and administrators. They were assigned to advisory/assessment (A/A) teams comprised of the principal, the assistant principal of instruction (API), and a senior teacher mentor. Members of the A/A teams were expected to observe and confer regularly with new teachers, provide new teachers with necessary coaching and support and assist beginning teachers in locating other needed sources of training and support. The principal was expected to spend a half day per semester observing and providing feedback to the beginning teahcer. The API and the mentor were expected to devote half a day per month to these functions. The trained observer and evaluators were to observe beginning teachers three times during the first year (Schlechty, 1984, p.10). Schlechty acknowledged, however, that the greatest short-term weakness of the program was the lack of systematic training and support for mentors, A/A teams, principals, and assistant principals.

Similarly, in Toledo, Ohio, Cheryl M. Waters and Terry L. Wyatt report that in 1985 an intern-intervention program was launched which used experienced teachers to train and evaluate beginning teachers. Uniformity and due process were clearly monitored as seven "consulting teachers" supervised nearly seventy beginning teachers. The benefits for the consulting teachers were twofold: 1) a close match between the teaching field of an intern and that of a consultant was possible and 2) freedom was given these teachers to channel all their energies into training beginning teachers. Consulting experienced teachers possessed: (1) Five years of outstanding teaching service, (2) Confidential references confirming outstanding experiences from principals, TFT representatives, and three peer teachers, and (3) demonstrated ability in written and oral expression. Consultants, chosen by subject specialization, were to serve for three years after which time they returned to their classroom assignments. The skills that were focused on for development of the new teacher program included: (1) teaching techniques, (2) classroom management skills, and (3) content knowledge. Particular targeted abilities included:

> The beginner's ability to ask meaningful questions that lead learners through a lesson, the beginner's ability to interact appropriately and impartially with students, and the beginner's ability to measure student progress. (Waters & Wyatt, 1985, p. 365)

Continuous goal setting through conferences, based on detailed observations, characterized the evaluation process of the beginning teachers. The responsibility of the consultant to the intern was threefold: (1) to point out a deficiency, (2) suggest a new teaching method, or (3) demonstrate a sample lesson. Although the consulting teachers in the Toledo program were

not mentors (in the literal sense of the word), they were expected to fulfill mentor-like roles.

Charlotte-Mecklenburg and Toledo are not the only school systems reported to have engaged in a mentor teacher like program. Judy Ann Krupp (1984) reports that in two elementary schools in Connecticut, a series of eight workshops designed to foster mentoring relationships in order to ensure staff growth and development had positive results. The program topics centered on an introductory session for the entire staff, workshops on adult developmental changes, stress and coping mechanisms, and active listening skills which were consistently related to the life of the participant and to mentoring. Krupp confirms that although mentoring was occurring in the schools before the project started, the workshops caused older teachers to acknowledge their own sense of self worth, form new friendships, and provide assistance--professional and personal--for young teachers.

Most recently (April, 1985), Susan Riemer Sacks and Patricia Brady described a Mentor Teacher Pilot Project developed through the collaborative effort of the Bureau of Staff Development in New York City and the Barnard College of Education faculty. In this program retired teachers assumed the "mentor role" with beginning teachers. The mentor teacher slogan, "to motivate, not dominate" reflects their basic strategies for supporting inductees. Their objectives for inductees were (1) to develop their own teaching styles and confidence, (2) to become decision makers in their classrooms, (3) to understand children's cognitive and affective needs, (4) to become sensitive to different learning styles, and (5) to broaden and deepen their repertoire of learning activities and effective ways of

teaching and coping with the first year (Sacks & Brady, 1985, p. 17). The authors describe the current status of the project:

> The project is presently in action following a schedule of intensive 12 hours of mentoring in September, February, and March and six hours during the other months of the school year. So far, all mentors who began in September are still involved. All principals are enthusiastic. All new teachers are still teaching in the assigned schools and seem to have accepted the mentors' participation. The project is being evaluated by site visits, observations, logs, questionnaires, and interviews with both mentors and new teachers. (Sacks & Brady, 1985, p. 18)

Matt Benningfield et. al. uniquely offers a proposal to establish demonstration schools for the Jefferson County Public Schools soliciting the assistance of Louisville University, in Louisville, Kentucky. The proposed demonstration school incorporates the use of "master/mentor teachers" ("m/m teachers") for faculty development and inservice. The select faculty, composed of outstanding teachers (m/m teachers) must possess the following characteristics:

> ...each has demonstrated his or her expertise as an effective teacher in the classroom. Such a teacher should also be competent in demonstrating his or her expertise to other teachers. These teachers should also demonstrate leadership ability, the ability to work with other teachers, and be committed to and show potential for engaging in educational research.
>
> (Benningfield et. al., 1984, p. 5)

The criteria for selecting master teacher candidates, master/mentor teachers and master teachers in Benningfield's proposed program is provided in

Appendix C. The faculty would engage in regular classroom assignments and would serve as mentors to visiting teachers. Visiting teachers, assigned a mentor, would study new teaching techniques and curricular approaches from the mentor for at least sixteen weeks. Once awarded master teacher status, they would return to their original school in order to modify their methodology of teaching (Benningfield et. al., 1985, p. 5). Presented clearly are the roles and functions of the master/mentor teachers provided in Table 2 (Appendix D). Benningfield and associates emphasize the surmountable demands of the master/mentor teacher and, therefore, propose a competitive salary commensurate with engineers in American society (Benningfield et. al, 1984, p. 6-7).

A formal, well funded, Master Teacher program was established by the California Department of State Education. The purpose of the California Mentor Teacher Program was to encourage retention of exemplary teachers and to upgrade the skills of new and experienced teachers. Mentor teachers were therefore selected and their time was allocated to staff development with teacher trainees, new and experienced teachers, and to curriculum development. Teachers in turn received a $4,000 annual stipend (California State Department of Education, 1983, p. 3-4).

Mentor teachers in California are selected solely on the basis of exemplary teaching and therefore are not required to hold administrative or other special credentials (such as competencies in evaluation techniques). Five percent of the teachers are designated mentor-teachers by the State Department of Education in current funding levels. Selection of mentor teachers starts with a carefully comprised "selection committee" composed of certified classroom teachers and school administrators both of whom are chosen to serve by their peers. Candidates are selected by a majority vote

after classroom observations are conducted by elected administrators and teachers. Finally, the governing board of the school district permits acceptance or rejection of the nominations (California State Department of Education, 1983, p. 4-6).

Mentor-teacher nomination and assessment is subjected to defined criteria by the legislature and the school districts. The legislature demands the credentialed classroom teacher maintain permanent status, substantial recent experience in classroom instruction, and demonstrate exceptional teaching ability (effective communication skills, subject matter knowledge, and mastery of teaching strategies) (California State Department of Education, 1983, p. 7). Districts are given detailed lists of criteria to follow for selecting mentors:

- Demonstrates knowledge and commitment to subject matter
- Subject matter expertise
- Ability to convey enthusiasm for the subject to students
- Demonstrates belief in student ability to succeed
- Commitment to setting high expectations for students
- Competence to teach at various student ability levels
- Use of appropriate grading standards, including resistance to the practice of giving inflated grades
- Willingness to give special attention to students requiring help
- Success in fostering excellent student performance
- Gives evidence of professional stature
- Leadership, e.g. in organizing projects on his or her own initiative
- Recognition by those in the same profession
- Respect of his or her colleagues.

(California Department of Education, 1983, p. 7)

The department has carefully defined the process for assessing mentor candidate qualifications as has Linda Lambert (1985), whose current work provides a comprehensive list of skills for mentoring and also a pertinent list of essential elements of adult learning (see Appendix E, "A Profile of a Mentor").

The California department allows for variation in roles for mentor teachers such as providing staff development for faculty, acting as lead instructor in retaining experienced teachers, professional trainer of teacher trainees, guides for new teachers, "fellows" in teacher training academics, and finally acting as "curriculum developer" (California State Department of Education, 1983, p. 9). New mentor teachers are supported in their new role by the State Department's commitment to:

1. Provide training for mentors...
2. Secure commitment from site administrators and teachers for work with the mentor...
3. Set reasonable expectations about what mentors can accomplish
4. Provide a forum for mentor teachers to assist one another.

(California State Department of Education, 1983, p. 11)

The report of the state education department recommends funding for the mentor-teacher program through stipends for the participants, funding through the legislature, and apportionment of monies to participating districts (California State Department of Education, 1983, p. 11-12). The McDonald study, as well, offers guidelines which might be beneficial for understanding funding sources (see Appendix F).

The data presented in this sector of the paper suggests the nature of the induction program is school district specific, and that many programs are beginning to adapt the mentor teacher relationship or at least

components of this relationship. Projects currently in existence (Charlotte-Mecklenburg, Toledo, Connecticut, New York City, and California) and the proposed program for Jefferson County Schools provide substantive guidelines for administrators/teachers attempting to ease the stresses experienced by the beginning teacher. The California system, in particular, has forged the way for the mentor teacher concept, by instituting an extensive and well-funded program which has incorporated the career ladder concept.

Significant is that all induction programs discussed recognize the need for some type of mentor or sponsor teacher. Careful selection of teachers to serve in the mentor status appears to be a critical element in planning induction programs.

Research on Mentoring in the Business Profession

Having reviewed literature predominantly in the education and adult development discipline, we will now turn our attention to what exists in the business literature which will enhance educators' understanding of the mentor-protege association. Each section is designed to explain a significant dimension of the mentoring relationship and an attempt is made to draw an appropriate comparison to teaching. For if the educator is seeking to initiate a mentor-protege program in the school district, a thorough understanding of the relationship is an order. The adaptability of much of the research in business to educational settings is certain. As Cyril O'Houle has stated, "Professions are notable for the nurturance they provide to their mentors, beginning with the mentor-novice relationship that characterizes at least part of the basic education and proceeding through a lifetime of colleagueship and supervision" (1979, p. 112).

The Characteristics and Functions of the Mentor

Levinson (1978) proposes that the mentor's primary function is to be a transitional figure: "One who fosters the young man's [woman's] development from child-in-relation-to- parental-adults to adult-in-peer-relation-with-other-adults. The mentor is a mixture of parent and peer." Although commonality among definitions is present, there are no agreed upon characteristics and functions of mentoring as indicated in Appendix G. Bova and Phillips (1984), after extensive research, have portrayed the diverse roles in which the mentor engaged.

Michael Zey conducted a study on mentoring wherein over a two-year period he collected a series of interviews of dozens of managers in corporations. He distinguished the role of the mentor as: (1) teaching the job, (2) drawing the organizational road map, and (3) providing career guidance. In reference to the teaching function, the author states: "The mentor imparts a feel for the job, a knowledge of the skills needed to perform it, and information on trends in the field" (Zey, 1984, p. 14). He suggests techniques for the pedagogy function:

1. Nondirective pedagogic methods that give the protege a sense of non-dependence, efficacy
2. Socratic questioning
3. Encouraging protege to "learn by doing" under close supervision
4. Role participation--involving the protege in decision-making process. (Zey, 1984, p.21)

In addition to teaching the job, Zey emphasizes the mentor "draw the Organizational Road Map" in order to educate the protege on less visible aspects of the organizational life--its structures, politics, and personalities. The senior participants in the relationship can provide

their protege with sketches of both the organization and its members, providing important information that the protege would not ordinarily be privy to or able to discover on their own (Zey, 1984, p. 25). Zey also discusses the potential for the protege to derive career guidance within and outside the organization from their mentor (Zey, 1984, p. 31).

For Zey, the mentoring function extends to that of personal support: psychological support, confidence building, and assistance with personal life. In providing psychological support, the mentor assists the protege in overcoming pressures and strains which accompany positions of greater responsibility. The mentor also builds the protege's sense of confidence and emphasizes the positive features of his/her job by calculating the benefits and the risks of the position and counteracting the sense of anxiety which proteges often experience when they approach stressful situations. Finally, the mentor may be able to provide help with personal life--pressures, personal dilemmas, and conflicts that interfere with job performance (Zey, 1984, p. 35).

Researchers Hunt and Michael (1983) identify the mentor's age, gender, organization position, power, and self confidence as the most commonly cited characteristics of mentors (1981, p. 480). Their first distinction--age--is consistent with Levinson's thought which emphasizes mentors should be older than the protege by a half-generation (8-15 years). Levinson (1978) warns age differences much greater than this are not uncommon but they do pose special hazards:

> When the mentor is a full generation older--say twenty years or more--there is a greater risk that the relationship will be symbolized by both in parent-child terms. This tends to activate powerful feelings, such as an excessive maternalism or paternalism in the elder, and

dependency or Oedipal conflicts in the younger, that interfere with the mentoring function. When the age difference is less than 6-8 years, the two are likely to experience each other as peers. They may be intimate friends or collaborative co-workers, but the mentorship aspects tend to be minimal. (Levinson, 1978, p. 99)

Likewise, Weber (1980) notes that "the mentor-protege interaction synthesizes characteristics of the parent-child relation and peer friendship without being either" (p. 20). He suggests that the mentor accept the protege as an equal and a friend, yet their difference in age and experience means that they are not peers. He states:

> The relationship more closely resembles peer friendship when the parties are closer in age and experience, parent-child when the gap between their ages is greater. In either case, mentoring is a nurturing relationship between two adults without implication that the protege is treated like a child. (Weber, 1980, p. 20)

Kram adds yet another dimension concerning age and the role of the mentor wherein she verifies that mentor relationships provide career and psychosocial functions for senior participants in mid-life. These psycho-social functions are dependent on the degree of trust, mutuality and intimacy that characterize the relationship (Kram, 1983, p. 616).

In addition to age and role, gender is also an important trait that influence the mentor-protege relationship. Male-female mentoring relationships have special complexities. Female proteges often have experience in overprotectiveness, greater social distance, and general discomfort in male-mentored relationships (Kram, 1983, p. 623). In male-female mentoring relationships, both participants must deal with sexual

tensions and fears, public scrutiny, and stereotypical male-female rules (Hunt & Michael, 1981, p. 481).

One can conclude from research cited that qualities of the mentor will affect the mentor-protege relationship. Patricia Ann Hanson (1984) has identified variations in mentor types and effects of these variations on mentor-protege relationships (Dissertation Abstracts, 1984, p. 3509). The work of Levinson, Zey, Hunt and Michael, and Kram is significant for educationists interested in mentoring in induction programs. Clearly new teachers could benefit by having a senior teacher assist them in learning the job, "drawing the organizational road map" of the school system, and offering needed career guidance. Psychological and emotional support in at least the first year of teaching may cause the beginner to chance a second year in their position. Also, age and gender of the potential mentor should be considered by the beginning teacher and/or the administrator designating pairs. The two characteristics have been shown to influence the effectiveness of the relationship.

Keeping in mind the characteristics and functions discussed concerning the mentor, attention will now be directed to the selection process of mentors and proteges and the importance of interpersonal relationships in mentor relationships.

Selecting and Attracting a Mentor

Zey's (1984) study investigates what qualities are considered most important in selecting a mentor or protege, what personal characteristics provide impetus for the relationship to develop, and what methods should be used to initiate a relationship after they identified "the correct person."In his text, he offered nine questions for selecting a mentor (all of which would appear to be appropriate for a mentor or sponsor teacher):

1. Is the mentor good at what he does?
2. Is the mentor getting support?
3. How does the organization judge the mentor?
4. Is the mentor a good teacher?
5. Is the mentor a good motivator?
6. What are the proteges needs and goals?
7. What are the needs and goals of the prospective mentor?
8. How powerful is the mentor?
9. Is the mentor secure in his (sic) own position?

(Zey, 1984, p. 167)

As might be expected, attaining a mentor does not necessarily happen by chance--especially in organizational settings. In most organizations, members of the mentor relationship must find each other. Zey (1984, p. 175) recommends the following strategies to neophytes desiring to attract a mentor:

1. Possessing and demonstrating competence.
2. Achieving Visibility.
3. Getting key assignments.
4. Showing a desire to learn.
5. Taking advantage of key interfaces.
6. Showing a willingness to help the potential mentor accomplish his goals.
7. Taking the initiative.
8. Making self accessible. (Zey, 1984, p. 175).

Weber (1980) also addresses the selection process of mentors and said: "Except under formalized conditions, mentor-protege relations develop because people happen to come into contact with one another" (Weber, 1980,

p. 21). After initial contact, the mentor-protege attraction is based on two factors: (1) whether the protege respects the mentor as a person, and (2) whether he admires his or her knowledge, experience and style (Weber, 1980, p. 22). The author suggests protege's can attract attention by being "hardworking and eager to learn." He describes a seeking out process:

> They (proteges) may seek out people with experience in order to hear their views. Having met more experienced persons, potential proteges may make an effort to ask them questions. These can be chance meetings or arranged for some purpose. Should the more experienced person take the time to respond, this is a signal that a mentor-protege relationship is possible. (Weber, 1980, p. 22)

In her article, Kathryn Moore confirms that the performance of an important and visible task is the usual way to find a mentor or to have a mentor find you. Moore notes the importance of competence or high performance in addition to going beyond normal job responsibilities. The performance of a task can happen accidentally, coincidentally, or quite deliberately--but the performance must be authentic (Moore, 1982, p. 5). Likewise, Short and Seeger (1984) in their literature review suggest proteges attract mentors by modeling themselves after a chosen person and displaying knowledge and initiative.

Selecting a Protege

Zey's (1984) research further indicates what mentors look for in proteges in organizations (all of which are important for the support teacher):

1. Intelligence
2. Ambition
3. Desire and ability to accept power and risk

4. Ability to perform the mentor's job
5. Loyalty
6. Similar perceptions of work and organization
7. Commitment to organization
8. Organizational savvy
9. Positive perception of the protege by the organization
10. Ability to establish alliances. (Zey, 1984, p. 182)

Zey suggests intelligence denotes the respondent's "quickness"--ability to analyze a problem rapidly--as well as his "alertness"--ability to identify the elements relevant to a problem. The protege's "desire and ability to accept power and risk included the need and ability to accept responsibility" (Zey, 1984, p. 183).

George and Kummerow (1981) highlight traits characteristic of "a good protege." The authors suggests the good protege is "positive minded." They explain: "...she is a confident, can do sort of person, more complimentary than critical in her interaction with others, both up and down in the organization" (George & Kummerow, 1981, p. 48). In addition, to being "positive-minded," the authors state the good protege maintains a thick skin--focusing on organizational issues rather than personal ones; develops an ability to laugh at oneself; develops an insightful attitude about themselves and others; and is conscientious, well-organized and hardworking (1981, p. 48). If the beginning teacher would develop these qualities, she/he would generate greater appeal as a potential protege to a mentor-teacher. George and Kummerow's good protege characteristics would be beneficial for the beginning teacher to adopt.

The Interpersonal Relationship

Zey's research reveals that strong interpersonal relationships do not necessarily characterize the mentor association. Most mentor relationships, in the study, were not "close" or based on common outside interests. The pairs were neither of the same social background, nor had they experienced similar schooling. The crucial component was the ability of the mentor and protege to work together. "Mutual trust, respect, and a belief in each other's ability to perform competently" determined a pair's potential for a successful association (Zey, 1984, p. 173). Zey explains the significance of the personality factor:

> Personality was important but not paramount in the mentor relationships I examined. For every manager whose answer to the question "What qualities attracted you to the mentor?" was "We just happened to hit it off," there were two or three who answered in terms of the work-based qualities of competence, position, and organizational support. In other words, participants in mentor relationships perceive personality as important but not not sufficient to ensure the success of the relationship. (Zey, 1984, p. 173)

Over time, a chemistry emerges between two people performing tasks and pursuing common goals on a day-to-day basis which is stronger than the mere attraction of personality. Zey concludes:

> Chemistry is often a result, not a cause, of the mentor-protege connection; that mentor relationships develop on a much more functional basis than chemistry; and the ability to fulfill a work role emerges as a more important determinent of mentor relationships than personality mesh. (Zey, 1984, p. 174)

Consistent with Zey, Alleman and Newman (1984) report strong interpersonal relationships do not always characterize the mentor-protege association. The subjects for the study included 50 mentor pairs who worked in a variety of organizations and functions. Results of the Alleman and Newman study do not support the common assertion that mentors pick proteges like themselves, as pairs in their study were not similar in measured personality characteristics or background factors. Furthermore, mentors do not perceive greater similarity between themselves and their protege than nonmentors see between themselves and their subordinates. The question of what attracts a mentor to the protege remained unanswered but two suggestions are offered: (1) the behavior of the protege, or (2) the talent and/or ability of the protege (Alleman & Newman, 1984, p. 4-5).

The Character of the Mentor-Protege Relationship

Clawson (1980) summarizes in an "Eclectic Profile of the Mentor-Protege Relationship" (the MPR), the various dimensions of the association as stated by various researchers (see Appendix H). The profile includes the traits of the mentoring relationship as described in literature concerning managerial work, managerial development, performance appraisal, learning theory, the socialization of individuals into organizations, adult life and career development theory, the paternal aspects of the Japanese managerial system, coaching, and sociological role theory (Clawson, 1980, p. 148).

Clawson's descriptions, however, neglect another valuable aspect of the mentoring relationships--the "patron system." Shapiro, Haseltime and Rowe (1978) describe this system as comprised of advisory/guiding persons who literally function as "protectors, benefactors, sponsors, champions, advocates, supporters, and advisors." The authors suggest that these persons form a continuum with a designated structure:

> We define "mentors" as the most intense and "paternalistic" of the types of patrons described by this continuum..."Sponsors" serve as the two-thirds point on our continuum, they are strong patrons but less powerful than mentors in promoting and shaping the careers of their proteges. We describe the one-third point on the continuum by using the term "guides". These individuals are less able than mentors and sponsors to fulfill the role of benefactor, protector, or champion of their proteges, but they can be invaluable in explaining the system. Their primary functions are to point out pitfalls to be avoided and shortcuts to be pursued..."peer pals,"...describe the relationship between peers helping each other to succeed and progress. The concept peers as patrons belies the notion that patrons must be more senior and more powerful than their proteges. (Shapiro et. al., 1978, p. 55)

Shapiro and colleagues suggest that the relationships that fall toward the mentor side of the continuum tend to be "more hierarchical and parental, more intense and exclusionary" and hence "more elitist". Those that fall toward the "peer pal" side of the continuum tend to be " more egalitarian and peer related, less intense and exclusionary" and thus, "more democratic, allowing access to a larger number of young professionals" (1978, p. 56). Induction programs using mentor teachers tend to span the continuum depending on the decisions of the local education agencies and the school districts. Speaking of the nature of the mentoring relationship and its repercussions would be insufficient without understanding the phases of the relationship.

Phases of the Mentor Relationship

Kathy Kram, David Hunt, and Carol Michael, in particular, have found that there are various stages/phases of the mentoring-relationship as time

passes. Kram, Hunt, and Michael note four predictable but not entirely exclusive phases. First is the initiation phase, characterized by a six to twelve month relationship in which the senior manager is admired and respected for his or her competence and support (Kram, 1983, p. 616). Hunt and Michael also claim an initiation stage which serves to allow the mentor and protege to clearly define their roles (1981, p. 482)

Kram's second stage is the cultivation phase in which functions provided expand to a maximum during a two to five year time period. Positive expectations are continually tested against reality (Kram, 1983, p. 616). Similarly, Hunt and Michael identify the second stage as the "Protege Stage". The protege stage, which spans the same time period, is when skills are developed and the protege is recognized not as an apprentice but instead a protege of an encouraging and supportive mentor. However, as the protege develops a need for individuality and desires to have his/her work recognized on its own merit, the relationship enters the "break up stage".

Kram, Michael, and Hunt all acknowledge the crucial separation phase of the relationship. After the designated time period, the separation phase begins. Kram explains the nature of separation (which occurs structurally and psychologically) and the inevitable ramifications for the association. She states: "In all instances this phase is a period of adjustment because career and psychosocial functions can continue no longer in their previous form; the loss of some functions, and the modification of others ultimately leads to a redefinition of the relationship" (Kram, 1983, p. 618). Hunt and Michael confirm the notion that the break up stage is vital if the relationship is to be beneficial for the mentor and the protege.

The final stage is identified by Kram as the "redefinition stage" and by Hunt and Michael as the "lasting friendship stage." In addition, Laurent

A. Daloz (1983) notes in his rhetorical article that "the proper send-off is the final gift of a good mentor." Hunt and Michael characterize the final phase by stating:

> The protege has progressed to peer or higher status and may become a mentor but has not severed ties with his/her own mentor, who still may provide some career counseling as well as support. Now a mutual or perhaps equal status and reciprocal relationship exists between mentor and protege. (Hunt & Michael, 1981, p. 483)

Kram warns that during the "redefinition phase" two individuals who have achieved peer status frequently experience "ambivalence and discomfort as both adjust to the new role relationship." She summarizes the redefinition phase by stating: "both have experienced a shift in developmental tasks so that the previous relationship is no longer needed or desired" (Kram, 1983, p. 183).

The existing phases of the mentoring relationship should be recognized by both a mentor and beginning teacher, if only to provide participatory parties with an understanding that their relationship shall undergo different stages. The duration of the relationship shall embody consistent challenges for the mentor/teacher as he/she provides a well-rounded perspective of the proteges career. Caution should be paramount as the mentor proceeds through the relationship.

Precautions in Engaging in the Mentor-Protege Relationship

Carl Rogers, a prominent psychologist, has explained his originality "I was fortunate in not having a mentor." This seems a strange statement, but had Rogers been mentored, he might have been subject to the overwhelming influence of a wise counselor, resulting in a loss of originality or uniqueness of thought (Bensahel, 1977, p. 44). In order to avoid such

hazards, Jane G. Bensahel in her article suggests safeguards before engaging in a mentor-protege association.

Bensahel warns mentors not to assume the relationship they have developed successfully in the organization will work equally well for the protege: "the chemistry that makes you an ideal team with several other people in the organization may be inappropriate for your protege" (1977, p. 45). She recommends giving the protege the opportunity to choose what works best for him/her although exposure of the protege to friends and allies and "your" own principles would be helpful.

Bensahel advises the protege not be dazzled by the influence of the mentor. She warns the mentor that they are "coping with new talent" not creating a carbon copy of themselves, and advocates independence in as many ways as possible for the protege. Her subsequent suggestion also speaks to generating independence: "Don't try too hard to shield your protege from mistakes that are bound to happen through experience" (Bensahel, 1983, p. 46). Extreme protection nurtures dependence and consequently, the protege must learn to go it alone.

In addition to generating independence in the protege, Bensahel suggests not burdening the protege with too great a sense of gratitude. Understanding his/her successes are due to to the influence of the mentor, the protege's gratitude can take the form of loyalty which is not beneficial to the mentor or the organization. Bensahel explains: "Try to avoid situations in which your protege's primary role is as your surrogate or as someone who is simply there to back up your opinions" (1983, p. 46).

Finally, Bensahel warns not to limit the protege's growth potential to that of the mentor. The best way to avoid limiting the development of the protege is to let him devise the necessary training to meet goals of mutual

agreement. Daloz adds "As mentors our art is to see ever more clearly our learner's agendas and the movement of their lives, in order that we may more fully accompany them" (1983, p. 27). The recommendations offered by Bensahel for those in the mentor association would hold particular significance for mentor teachers. The goal of all mentor teachers should be to generate independence and to propagate growth in their protege. Research indicates what and how proteges learn from their mentors which is addressed in the next section.

What and How Proteges Learn From Their Mentors

Bova and Phillips (1982) surveyed subjects to understand why people were attracted to each other as well as to look at what the proteges learned from their mentors. The findings of the survey denote the following knowledge the protege acquired from the mentor:

1. The development of risk taking skills
2. Communication skills
3. How to survive in the organization
4. Skills of their profession
5. Respect for people
6. Setting high standards for myself and not compromising them
7. How to be a good listener
8. How to get along with people - all kinds
9. Leadership qualities
10. What it means to be a professional. (Bova & Phillips, 1982, p. 8)

How to engage in active listening, how to create win-win situations, and understand what was expected to excel (e.g. get to work early, stay late, work weekends, and what to wear) were all factors in the protege's education (Bova & Phillips, 1982, p. 8-9). What and how proteges learn based on roles

identified by Phillips-Jones (1982) is provided by Bova and Phillips in Appendix I. Understanding what proteges learn will assist educators in designing formal and informal mentoring programs. The next sector will provide specific guidelines to utilize in initiating such programs.

Guidelines for Formal and Informal Mentor Programs

Weber (1980, p. 19) suggests that programs for protege development are crucial to successful mentoring but variation in the programs are dictated by the needs of particular mentor relations. James Wolf and Orion White (1982) acknowledge, however, that: (1) there is frequently a lack of appropriate organizational structures and processes to support such a program, (2) there is a lack of competence on the part of both senior advisors and advisees in performing effectively, both as providers and receivers of support, and finally (3) "Initiating" and "Kick-off" programs are often inadequate and sometimes do not go beyond formal introduction (Wolf and White, 1982, p. 193).

Formal mentoring programs exist in the federal government, the private sector, and, as we have seen, in public schools. Well established mentoring programs in the federal government have emerged in the Internal Revenue Service (IRS), the Federal Executive Development Program, the Presidential Management Intern Program, and the Science and Education Administration within the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Institutionalized mentor programs in the private sector include: Jewel Companies, American Telephone and Telegraph Bell laboratories, Glendale (California) Federal Savings and Loans, Hughes Aircraft and Merrill Lynch. The programs in the public and private sector encourage advice on career goals and advancement strategies, instruction in technical as well as social-managerial skills, visibility and exposure, counseling about work-related or personal problems, encouragement,

confrontation and actual opportunities to perform new skills that are acquired (Phillip-Jones, 1983, p. 38).

The argument has been made that mentor-protege relationships are natural and grow out of the interaction between persons, therefore workshops can hardly be sufficient for telling someone how to find or be a mentor (see Keele & DeLaMare-Schaefer, 1984). However, there are general rules to follow which may ensure the success of a formal mentor program. Linda Phillip-Jones (1983) suggests in her research that top management support the program and that it be publicized through speeches, letters, and other official communications. She recommends the mentoring program be part of a larger career development or management training effort, to ensure/stabilize the success of mentoring activities (Phillip-Jones, 1983, p. 39). The author emphasizes the program be voluntary-participants should join only if they choose, allowing no penalties for those who do not participate or who want to drop out. A clear statement of expectations should be shared and agreed upon by the pair and any transfers should be allowed among mentors and mentees. Weber (1980, p. 19) confirms Phillips-Jones' notion that mentors and proteges should know each others expectations. He adds that there should be a mutual understanding of immediate and long term objectives for the protege's development and of their joint and separate activities (Weber, 1980, p. 19).

Phillip-Jones calls for each phase of the program to be short and stipulated six months as a sufficient length for the first mentor-mentee cycle. The responsibilities for setting up cycles would include:

> ...some organizing time prior to the beginning of the six-month period. The program coordinator will need at least a few weeks to get management's commitment, selectively publicize the effort, decide on

goals, recruit volunteers, set up orientation sessions, contact consultants who may be able to help and choose some evaluation strategies. If the first six-month cycle is a success, a second can be started close on its heels. (Phillip-Jones, 1983, p. 40)

Most important is the careful selection of mentors and mentees. The author states: "Most formal mentoring programs require a nominating procedure and then allow the directors and coordinators of the programs to match mentors and mentees" (1983, p. 40). An orientation for the pair to incite enthusiasm and provide an education of the relationship's benefits is of primary importance. Although mentors should be allowed to carry out their responsibilities in a style most comfortable for them, packets of material should be provided to help them with the guiding task. Phillip-Jones suggests ideas to get the mentor started:

- Tell a personal career story. Share the highs and lows of the career path.
- Invite leaders of the organization as well as other VIPs (administrators) to share their career stories and mentoring experiences with the group. Include individuals who achieved their success in past years as well as younger individuals who have made it recently.
- Invite people interested in "inward" as well as "outward" career success.
- Have mentees complete a competencies self-assessment form related to their field, and discuss the results individually or in a group.
- Ask mentees to select a book or article on management or career development and report on the reading to you and the other mentees.
- Talk about how the content could apply within the organization.

- Help mentees write short-range and long- range career development plans.
- Complete actual projects together. Find ways to work together, on a temporary basis to solve an organizational (or otherwise) problem.
- Arrange visits for the mentees to various parts of the of the organization to broaden their perspective on the organization.
- Take mentees to formal and informal management (faculty) meetings.
- Always have a debriefing afterward with the mentees.

(Phillip-Jones, 1983, p. 42)

Final suggestions for the program include listing the responsibilities of the pair in writing and underestimating the contributions of the mentor. The author states: "If the mentors decide to add to this minimum, they can negotiate the additions with their mentees later" (Phillip-Jones, 1983, p. 42). Consistent with Phillip-Jones suggestions, Conrad and Hammond suggest in "Cooperative Approaches to Faculty Development" that once individuals have been notified of their pairings, they should meet to develop a plan: "professional development goals, specific means of meeting those goals, resource needs, and a timetable for the semester" (1982, p. 50). Phillip-Jones advocates a monitoring system to accrue the necessary data to convince decision makers to keep, expand or drop the program. Data showing the mentoring program to have made a positive impact on the participants and the organization would insure its existence (Phillip-Jones, 1983, p. 42).

A less formal plan for encouraging spontaneous mentoring relationships is suggested by Alleman, Cochran, Doverspike, and Newman (1984). In their discussion based on their study, these authors propose that a developmental group for potential mentors be formed and that separate educative sessions be designed to focus on such topics as: benefits of the mentor

relationship, ways to increase the protege's self-esteem, and adapting mentoring practices to a particular setting while gaining organization-wide support. The authors suggest that factual information about mentoring that is contrary to unfounded common assumptions could be transmitted in an instructional mode. Alleman and colleagues speculate:

> Members of a group could brainstorm specific ways of adapting mentoring practices to their unique settings, ways to gain organization support for mentoring, and ways to deal with potential problems arising from mentoring relationships. Within the group, members could assess the practicality and benefit of various mentoring activities. Members could also develop greater skill at mentoring behaviors by role play and critiques within the group. Finally, the members could act as a support network for each other as they put the mentoring practices in action on the job.
>
> (Alleman et al., 1984, p. 332)

The authors state the effects and benefits of these and other strategies can be measured with the L.D.Q.--the Leadership Development Questionnaire.

Conclusions

The purpose of this literature review was to investigate the pertinent literature on mentoring among teachers and any adaptable research from other professions. Much of the research done in business settings has useful implications for planning formal or informal mentoring or induction programs in schools. The predominant mode of induction in schools in the United States and elsewhere has been the "sink or swim" method. Newberry's research, in particular, emphasizes the need for an induction program that utilizes support teachers during the first year or at least the first six months of teaching school, for it is during this initial introduction into

the profession that many young persons in the "early adult phase" are likely to seek out a mentor. Adapting "Levinson's Season's," the beginning teacher would seek a mentor at age 22 (or 23) when on the precipice of a new career. Potentially, the beginning teacher would seek a guide or "transitional figure" to introduce them into their adult world of work. The beginning teacher would benefit from association with this guide. An exemplar mentor-teacher, carefully selected, could at least initially provide for the beginning teacher knowledge of the school and the curriculum to which they have become party. A support teacher with mentor-like qualities might eliminate some stresses of first year teachers.

Clearly, a mentor-teacher, in the homeric sense of the word--"mentor"--cannot in fact be assigned to a beginning teacher in an induction program. A mentor-protege pair connotes a voluntary and deep relationship not limited to basic direction and encouragement (which more characterizes the responsibilities of a "coach"). It may be feasible, however, to provide the beginning teacher with a support teacher for the first six months, and if the relationship were to evolve to that of mentor-protege, it's continuance could be advocated but voluntary. Zey notes that chemistry is a result, not a cause of the mentor-protege connection, in that the mentor relationship develops on a much more functional basis (Zey, 1984, p. 174). In the 6-month trial period, stipulated by Phillip-Jones, the pair would determine if they were able to work together--establish a mutual trust, respect, and a belief in each other's ability to perform competently (Zey, 1984, p. 73) Gehrke and Kay confirm the notion that with time teachers in mentor relationships develop a more comprehensive relationship in a professional and personal manner. Weber (1980, p. 20) suggests the mentor accept the protege as an equal and friend, however, their differences in age and

experience means they are not peers. The relationship Weber describes is suitable for the beginning teacher and his/her support or mentor teacher. Suggested by Levinson is that there should be a 6-8 year difference between the mentor and protege not to exceed 20 years or drop below six years.

There are significant benefits for the beginning and experienced (often older) teacher from engaging in a mentor-protege relationship. The beginning teacher's advantages are numerous, including such benefits as guidance in classroom techniques and management, help with subject matter content, and consequently reduction of stress (often incurred in large doses during the first year). The realization of Levinson's "dream" for the protege could be assisted by the mentor-teacher.

Krupp's research indicates older teachers can potentially improve their sense of self worth and form new friendships as a result of a workshop which initiated a mentor program. Kram (1983, p. 609) adds adult growth is enhanced by mid life in order to redirect one's energies into creative and productive action that can be responsive to salient concerns of the protege. The issue is that of Erikson's (1950) generativity vs. stagnation. Generativity, or concern for guiding the next generation could provide purpose to an older teacher's sometimes routine pace. Providing guidance for a younger teacher gives credence to the older teacher's understanding of their own career.

Ideally, mentor and beginning teachers should carefully scrutinize each other's qualifications (N.B. Zey's lists of questions and characteristics) before making a final decision as to whom to engage in an association with. Once the pair has been established, they will begin the journey through the phases of the relationship. Due to the nature of teaching, however, the

duration of the phases and the events may differ from those described by Kram. Always, the mentor-teacher should make nurturing independence in the novice teacher a key objective. Bensahel warns, the mentor should not try to create a carbon copy of themselves (1983, p. 46).

As Fagan and Walter suggest in their study, educators can either encourage informal mentoring or they can develop formal mentoring programs (1982, p. 117). For those teachers/administrators developing mentoring programs in their school districts, guidelines applied by Linda Phillip-Jones (1983) and Alleman et al. (1984) might be incorporated into their master design. Below the authors' guidelines have been adapted to teaching:

1. The top administrative officials of the school district or university must support the program. Publication of the program through speeches, letters, or other official communication would be helpful.
2. If possible, the formal mentoring program must be a part of a larger career developmental model in order to stabilize the success of mentoring activities.
3. The program must be voluntary - no penalties should be given those who do not join or wish to drop out.
4. Short term commitments, preferably 6 months, should be made between mentors and proteges. For this duration of time, a clear statement of expectation should be devised this period. Any needed transfers should be allowed between mentors and mentees.
5. A very careful selection of mentor-teachers should be conducted. As Schlechty suggests, recruitment and selection is an integral part of the induction process. The California State Department of Education and Lambert provide noteworthy guidelines for this purpose. Mentor

teachers should be selected by administrative as well as peer teachers to ensure quality in that status position.

6. Mentor teachers should be allowed to conduct their activities in a style most comfortable for them after having received formal training as well as a packet of materials they may periodically call upon. Expectations for the mentor-teacher should be reasonable at the start. Any extra responsibilities should be negotiated between the beginning teacher and the mentor teacher at a later date.

7. Mentor teachers who engage in a formal induction program, helping beginning teachers, should receive some type of reinforcement: extra training, time off, pay raises or stipends.

8. The working environment should be arranged in a manner by which the mentor and protege are accessible to each other. Also allowing time for social exchange within the day and encouraging off-work activities, may chance the relationship.

9. Once the relationship is secured, an exact written list of activities and expectations should be provided for both parties.

10. A systematic monitoring system should be agreed upon by both parties. Data should be conscientiously recorded in order to ensure the continuance of the program. Intensive clinical supervision, demonstration, coaching, and constant corrective feedback should be components of the monitored system.

11. Continuous goal setting should be engaged in by the beginning teacher and should be based on detailed observations by the mentor-teacher.

This list is by no means exhaustive, but would be a strong starting point for those persons contemplating initiating an induction program in their

school district or state. The advantages of a mentoring program for the teachers involved are manifold, thus, a carefully planned and monitored pilot project, at least, would appear to be warranted. Levinson states:

> Poor mentoring in early adulthood is the equivalent of poor parenting in childhood: without adequate mentoring a young man's [woman's] entry into the adult world is greatly hampered. Some degree of emotional support, guidance and sponsorship is needed to smooth the way and make the journey worthwhile.
>
> (Levinson, 1978, p. 338)

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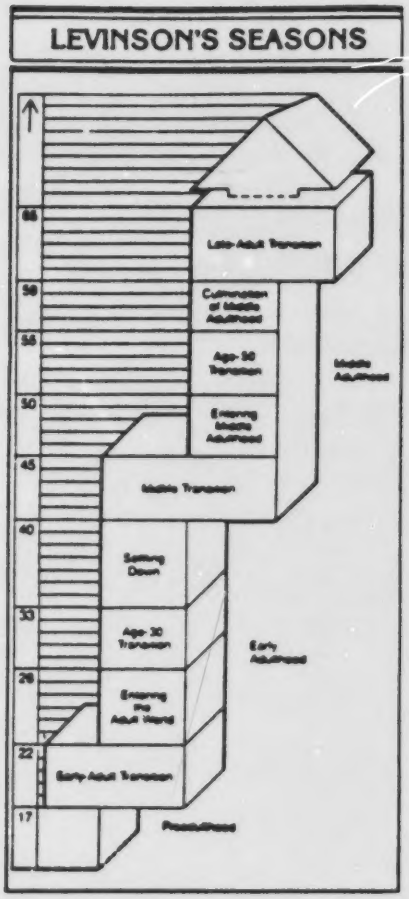
Appendix A

"Levinson's Seasons"

Levinson, Daniel. Seasons of a man's life.

Appendix A

Levinson's "Seasons"



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Appendix B

Capsule Description of Eleven Selected Beginning Teacher Programs

Zeichner, K. M. Teacher induction practices in the United States and Great Britain.

Capsule Description of Eleven Selected Beginning Teacher Programs

1. The N.A.S.S.P. Project on the Induction of Beginning Teachers (Hunt, 1968; Swanson, 1968)

This project was a three-year experimental effort (1965-1968) funded by the Carnegie Corporation and designed specifically to test the validity of Conant's recommendations concerning teacher induction. The final year of the project involved 188 beginning high school teachers in 33 schools in five states. There were two major purposes to the project: (1) to give beginning teachers extra time and help so that they might better develop professionally; (2) to discover through experimentation means by which the first years of teaching might be improved. Despite a great deal of variation among local projects, there were four elements that all sites held in common: (1) the teaching loads of beginning teachers were reduced by one class period; (2) experienced teachers were appointed to work with 3-8 beginning teachers and were given a reduced workload of one period; (3) assistance was given to beginning teachers in finding and using good instructional materials; (4) beginning teachers were provided with special information on the characteristics of the community, student body and school policies.

Individual and group assistance was provided to beginning teachers on as as needed basis within a four-phase framework: Phase I--a preservice orientation; Phase II--a beginning of school orientation supplemental to or in place of the regular school orientation program; Phase III-a first semester program focusing on the "practical;" Phase IV--a second semester program involving a gradual shift from practical concerns to more long range and theoretical concerns. Program activities included group seminars, observations of experienced teachers, analyses of videotaped lessons and

team teaching. A formal and independent evaluation of the project was undertaken by the R&D department of the Detroit Public Schools in 1967. This evaluation consisted of a series of questionnaires given to beginning and cooperating teachers and analyses of logs kept by the beginning teachers. The focus of the evaluation was on the kinds of help most valued by the beginning teachers and on the nature of program impact.

2. The Washington State Modified Internship for Beginning Teachers (Hite et al., 1966; Hite, 1968)

Following a request from the Washington S.E.A. for experimental efforts to improve conditions for first year teachers, Hite et al. (1966) designed an experiment to test the effects of reduced work loads and intensive inservice training on the attitudes and behaviors of beginning teachers. The project, which ran during the 1965-66 school year, involved 120 beginning elementary teachers from five school districts. There were three different experimental treatments and one control group (30 teachers per group). Two of the experimental groups were given a 25% reduced teaching load (¼ daily released time) and either were observed by and conferenced with a district supervisor twice a week or visited classrooms of experienced teachers twice a week. The third experimental group was given only a 25% reduced teaching load (25% fewer pupils). The control group received no special treatment other than the regular school district orientation procedures. The four groups were matched on the basis of their grade level assignment and grade in student teaching. Each beginning teacher (experimental and control) was observed four times with a classroom observation system and completed an attitude scale prior to each visit. A follow-up study was conducted during 1966-67 with 10 randomly selected

teachers from each group to determine whether the effects of reduced loads and support persisted.

3. The Oswego N.Y. Plan for Team Supervision of Beginning Teachers (Reading et al., 1967; McGinnis, 1968)

Funded by the New York S.E.A., this experimental effort was designed to help first year teachers to improve their classroom performance and to reduce the beginning teacher dropout rate. The program consisted of an experienced teacher (team leader) trained in a specific model of supervision working with a team of four-five beginning teachers in the same building. The focus was on the team members providing mutual assistance through observations and analyses of each member's teaching. The goal was to have beginning teachers eventually develop habits of self-analysis. A significant feature of this program was that the supervision provided was totally divorced from regular school district evaluation procedures. Nothing that took place in the team sessions was ever communicated to building administrators. In the first year of operation (1967-68) the program involved 127 beginning teachers in 20 schools with a team leader in each school. Money was given to each school district by the S.E.A. to provide released time for team members as the district saw fit. An evaluation conducted by the S.E.A. was still in progress at the time the program descriptions were written. Tentative results are reported.

4. The Beginning Teacher Development Program in Hawaii (Noda, 1968)

This pilot program which was a joint effort of the University of hawaii, the Hawaii S.E.A. and local L.E.A.'s was a statewide effort to provide added support to beginning teachers. During its first year of operation (1966-67), the program involved 500 beginning teachers in over 100 elementary and secondary schools throughout the state of Hawaii.

Forty-eight experienced teachers were appointed to provide supervision for beginning teachers at a ratio of about 1:10. Each supervisor worked in several schools and was given some released time for supervisory activities, but it is not clear from the report of the program how much released time was provided. The overall goal of the program was to develop "self-directing" beginning teachers. This program, unlike many others, did not separate the supervisory support from regular school district evaluation procedures. Each supervisor was required to submit an assessment of his or her beginning teachers to the building principals at the end of the year. Two University of Hawaii consultants provided supervision courses and individual consultations for the supervisors. An evaluation of the program was conducted, but it is not clear from the data presented what procedures were used.

5. The Wheeling, Ill., Teacher Inservice Training Program (Johnson, 1969)

This federally funded (Title 3) program which began in one high school with 22 beginning teachers in 1967-68 was later expanded to include additional schools and experienced teachers. The L.E.A. was totally responsible for planning, implementing, and evaluating the program. The focus of the program was on getting beginning teachers involved in assessing their own classroom behavior and in seeing their students as individuals. The content consisted of one full day per month released time for beginning teachers to attend seminars in groups of 8-10. The seminars were staffed by district personnel. Some additional but unspecified amount of released time was also provided for beginning teachers to observe in the classrooms of more experienced teachers. The content of the seminars varied according to the expressed needs and concerns of the beginning teachers. Additionally, many simulation exercises were utilized which focused on interpersonal and

group dynamics. Seminar sessions were videotaped to enable participants to become more aware of their own behavior. An evaluation conducted by the L.E.A. focused on user satisfaction and on changes in beginning teacher attitudes.

6. The Wilmette, Ill., Program for Beginning Teachers (Wilmette Public Schools, 1969)

This federally funded (Title 3) program for beginning teachers with 0-2 years experience was initiated in 1968-69. In its initial year the project serviced 80 beginning teachers in 9 public and private Wilmette, Illinois, elementary schools. The program consisted of a five-day summer orientation workshop and one-half day per month released time for beginning teachers to participate in workshops, demonstrations, and classroom observations and individual consultations. Additionally, eight Saturday workshops were held on issues related to curriculum, teaching methods and instructional materials. Experienced "helping teachers" were appointed to work with four to six beginning teachers in planning and self-evaluation and they observed neophytes' classes. These helping teachers were given some unspecified form of supervisory training and limited released time. Finally, university advisor-consultants were available on scheduled inservice days to provide additional assistance to beginning teachers.

All of the assistance given in this program was totally separate from the district's teacher evaluation procedures. Also, an attempt was made to provide an individualized program for each neophyte and to meet beginning teacher needs as they emerged. At the end of the first year of the program, plans were underway to form an Advisory Council of all representative interest groups. The Institute for Educational Development in Downers Grove, Illinois, served as a consultant to the L.E.A in conducting a program

evaluation which focused on the degree to which neophytes felt that their needs were being met and with the satisfaction with the program expressed by all role groups.

7. The New York City Supportive Training Program for Inexperienced and New Teachers (Honigman, 1970)

This pilot program funded by the New York Office of Urban Education was initiated in 1968-69 to provide supportive services for beginning teachers and to reduce teacher dropout rates in schools with a history of high teacher turnover. The program was concentrated primarily in low income areas of Manhattan, Brooklyn, and the Bronx. The content consisted of providing skilled and experienced "master teachers" to serve as consultant resources for beginning teachers. These master teachers assisted individual neophytes in many areas including curriculum implementation, establishing classroom routines and teaching methods. Some inservice workshops were also conducted for groups of beginning teachers. Each master teacher worked with approximately nine neophytes and was given 100% released time. Additionally, a wide variety of school district specialists were made available to the program as back-up resources. The N.Y.C. Office of Personnel provided some unspecified training and support for the 152 master teachers. A program evaluation was conducted by the Office of Urban Education in which STINT teachers were compared with a control group of beginning teachers in similar settings. This evaluation was concerned with the amount of staff turnover, observations of neophytes' classes, teacher and student attitudes and the extent to which the program was implemented.

8. The South Texas New Teacher Orientation Project (Dooley, 1970)

This project, which involved six L.E.A.'s, two I.H.E.'s and a regional educational service center, was initiated in 1968-69 with the involvement of

357 beginning teachers (either new to the profession or new to a school district). The program was designed to strengthen the teaching skills and professional commitment of new teachers to work with low income Mexican-American pupils in Rio Grande border schools. The first phase of the program involved giving beginning teachers released time to attend one-hour monthly small group discussion-training sessions led by university consultants and assisted by experienced teachers. These seminars were largely unstructured and focused on the concerns expressed by beginning teachers. There was also a limited but unspecified amount of released time provided for neophytes to observe experienced teachers. An evaluation conducted by the educational service center consisted of a questionnaire which was sent to all of the program participants at the end of the first year of operation. The focus of the questionnaire was on the extent to which program objectives were achieved, the job satisfaction of beginning teachers, projected teacher turnover, and detailed feedback about the value of the small group sessions. In the second year of operation a group of the original neophytes produced a teacher orientation booklet for use in Rio Grande schools.

9. The Washington, D.C., Program for the Recruitment of Beginning Teachers (Scates, 1970)

This federally funded (Title 5) project was designed to provide beginning teachers with support, training, and assistance to help them succeed in a large urban school district. Additionally, there was a particular focus on helping beginning teachers to use varied approaches in the teaching of reading and language arts and in developing skills in human relations. The program consisted of a two-week summer orientation workshop, 3 one-day released time workshops, and continuing individual support and

assistance throughout the year. it is unclear from the report of the program how and by whom this individual assistance was provided. The first year of the program involved 36 teachers who were either new to the profession or new to the D.C. school district. A program evaluation conducted by the district R&D department consisted of a series of questionnaires focusing on user satisfaction and on how well the program objectives were implemented.

10. The Salem, New Hampshire, Program for Helping the Beginning Teacher (Marashio, 1971)

This program was initiated to help beginning teachers in one Salem, New Hampshire, high school. The total program was carried out utilizing existing school staff and without any released time costs. There were four interrelated program components. First, each beginning teacher was paired with an experienced cooperating teacher. Each member of a dyad taught in the same subject area and had common free periods for conferencing. The cooperating teachers served as resources to the neophytes and had nothing to do with formal assessment procedures. Secondly, each beginning teacher was trained to interpret data gathered from the Flanders Interaction Analysis system. Two trained staff members observed each beginner with a Flanders and held an post-analysis session after each observation. Each beginner was observed twice in this way. Next, seminars were held every other week after school as a chance for the neophytes to exchanges problems and ideas. The beginning teachers suggested the topics and speakers for these sessions. Finally, beginning teachers were observed an unspecified number of times by the curriculum coordinator and department chair with a post-analysis occurring after each lesson. Beginners were also given some opportunity to observe experienced teachers and kept a journal throughout the year. There

is limited evaluation data reported on this program concerning the extent of user satisfaction.

11. The Alabama First Year Teacher Pilot Program (Alabama S.E.D., 1974; Blackburn et al., 1975)

This final and one of the most complex of the beginning teacher programs was initiated on a pilot basis in 1973-74 following a resolution by the Alabama S.E.A. stating that I.H.E.'s, L.E.A.'s and S.E.A. should jointly assume responsibility for the success of beginning teachers. The S.E.A. totally funded this project which involved 100 beginning elementary, secondary and special education teachers in 7 school districts during its first year of operation. A support team representing each of the three sponsoring groups provided individual support for each beginning teacher. First, there were 6 University of Alabama clinical professors, each of whom worked with 16-19 neophytes. The professors observed, demonstrated teaching techniques and helped each teacher conduct a self-assessment of their needs. Secondly, each beginning teacher was assigned to one of two S.E.A. consultants who visited with the neophytes in their classrooms and chaired support-team meetings. Finally, each L.E.A. had a program coordinator who helped beginning teachers become acquainted with the school and community and obtain instructional resources. Thus, each neophyte had a support team of three: one clinical professor, one L.E.A. coordinator, and one S.E.A. consultant. The overall goal of the program was to determine the most common and specific needs of the first year teachers and to help them assess their progress toward specified goals. An evaluation was conducted in which 100 teachers were compared with a control group on the basis of questionnaires and interviews. The evaluation was concerned with

documenting the kinds of support received by beginning teachers, teacher attitudes, student attitudes and student achievement.

Appendix C

Role and Function of MM [Master, Mentor], MTC [Master Teacher Candidate] and Master Teachers Criteria for Selection

Benningfield, M., & Others. A proposal to establish demonstration schools and the identification, training and utilization of master/mentor and master teacher: A joint school district and University of Louisville project.

MM, MTC and Master Teachers

Criteria for Selection

1. Demonstrated skills in the classroom
2. Commitment to the classroom
3. Commitment to education
4. Commitment to children
5. Commitment to inservice education
6. Commitment to professional and personal growth
7. Demonstrated ability for instructional leadership (classroom)
8. Ability to communicate with peers (other classroom teachers)
9. Willingness (ability to be involved in inservice education under a variety of environments and conditions
10. Able to develop and utilize a variety of support systems
11. Flexible
12. High problem-solving ability
13. Be able to anticipate
14. High content knowledge
15. Be able to analyze
16. High verbal skills (articulate)
17. Able to handle complex situations
18. Able to develop sundry options and alternatives
19. Ability to make appropriate choices among a variety of alternative and options
20. Knowledgeable about changes in methodologies, knows how to use them appropriately (e.g., micro-computers, mastery teaching) in classroom
21. High knowledges of learning theories, Educational Psychology, and knows children
22. Willingness to be involved actively in applied and action research in the classroom and school
23. Willingness to travel _____? appropriate for M teachers)

24. Demonstrated willingness to expend effort and energy beyond the typical school day

25. Highly creative

26. Independent thinker

27. Process oriented

28. Knowledgeable about the _____ effecting education (classroom, non-classroom factors, e.g., political, social, economic, community issues, etc.)

29. Demonstrated use of a variety of teaching techniques in the classroom

30. Knows current literature in his/her field of interests (Elementary Ed., Math Ed., Social Studies Ed., etc.) as well as the broad areas (e.g., effective schools and effective teacher literature)

31. Can use individual and groups (small, large) teaching techniques in the classroom

32. Can be original

33. Is "bright"

34. Can support and reinforce others

35. Able to develop support systems for teachers

36. Brings out the best in others

37. Has high leadership ability, but can be a part of a group (highly skilled in group dynamics)

38. Is professionally, personally, and psychologically secure with themselves and their abilities

39. Can give objective criticism

40. Can take criticism

41. Willingness to change ideas, ideals, etc., when professionally appropriate

42. Must have a Master's Degree and CEU/PSD/Rank I Credits

43. Have a continuing education plan and has implemented part (or all)

44. Well read professionally and nonprofessionally

45. Has a history of high student achievement in classes taught

Appendix D

Role and Function of MM and Master Teachers

Benningfield, M., & Others. A proposal to establish demonstration schools and the identification, training and utilization of master/mentor and master teacher: A joint school district and University of Louisville project.

ROLE AND FUNCTION OF MM AND MASTER TEACHERS

ROLES AND FUNCTIONS	TEACHER CATEGORY MM*	MT
1. Demonstration of excellence in classroom teaching	District Wide	Local School
2. In-service instruction (individual, school district-wide)	District Wide	Local School
3. Curriculum development (school building level, district-wide)	District Wide	Local School
4. Development of new teaching techniques and methodologies	District Wide	Local School
5. Active disseminator of excellence in teaching	District Wide	Local School
6. Participate in applied and action research	District Wide	(not required)
7. Function as teacher role models for teachers	District Wide	Local School
8. Function as teacher role models for administrators	District Wide	Local School
9. Provide instructional leadership in assigned school(s)	District Wide	Local School
10. Provide feedback on effective (as well as ineffective) programs	District Wide	Local School
11. Participate in "think-tank" activities on a building level; systems level	District Wide	Local School
12. Function in a Master Teacher team to solve instructional problems in individual settings (e.g., classroom, school) - would work with regular teachers in a joint effort in problem solving	District Wide	Local School
13. Translate theory and research into practice (work closely with University)	District Wide	Local School
14. Work closely with school building principal(s)	District Wide	Local School

*MM teachers have district-wide and building level obligations

Appendix D
Role and Function of MM and Master Teachers

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Appendix E

A Profile of A Mentor

Lambert, L. Adult education, teacher preparation and inservice: An urgent agenda.

Appendix E

CHART II

Skills of Mentoring	Essential Elements of Adult Learning
orchestrate cognitive dissonnance and consonance through such approaches as questioning, feedback and coaching	cognitive dissonance/ consonance
provide solid experience as a context for examining ideas and actions	experience
demonstrate strong commitment to personal growth and development include continued learning, self-reflection, analysis and critique	purpose, self-analysis
foster self-direction in others by encouraging independence and self-analysis	self-direction, emacipation
understand the stages of a mentoring relationship, altering the interaction in response to growing autonomy	autonomy, adult development
demonstrate flexibility by knowing when to be a teacher, facilitator, listener, inquirer	cognitive dissonance/ consonance, support
demonstrate skills as an action researcher	inquiry, dissonance
understands persuasion, facilitation and change processes	all elements
serve as a model adult learner	all elements
demonstrate strong collegial skills--including critique, support, and reciprocity	collegiality
understand and communicate knowledge of effective teaching	technical assist-ance, modeling, cognitive dissonance/ consonance
evidence capacity for mutual trust and regard	trust, regard

Appendix F

"Control and Governance in the Implementation of Induction Programs"

McDonald, F. The problems of beginning teachers: A crisis in training.

Appendix F

Control and Governance in the Implementation of Induction Programs

F. An induction program usually involves both a college or university and a school system. Listed below are elements of an induction program and the groups who might have responsibility for them in future programs. For both kinds of induction programs, next to each program element, indicates the number associated with the group which you think should have primary responsibility for the element. If primary responsibility should b shared, indicate the numbers of each group who should share in the responsibility.

Groups: (1) University; (?) School System; (3) Teacher Organization, and (4) State or Federal Program

Ratings: Intern Programs	Ratings: Beginning Teacher Programs	Program Elements
____	____	46. Program design
____	____	47. Program administration
____	____	48. Program implementation
____	____	49. Program monitoring
____	____	50. Program evaluation
____	____	51. Allocation of finances, (compensation for different personnel, materials, space)
____	____	52. Selection of beginning teachers
____	____	53. Training of beginning teachers
____	____	54. Place and supervision of beginning teachers
____	____	55. Evaluation of beginning teachers
____	____	56. Selection, training and evaluation of university faculty/supervisors
____	____	57. Selection, training and evaluation of district or school training staff including cooperating teachers

Other: (please specify)_____

Comments: _____

Cost Factors

G. Induction programs might be financially supported by several different sources. For questions 58-61, check each source which you think should contribute financial support. Also for each question, please indicate which of the 6 funding sources should be the primary source of funding by circling the check mark associate with your choice.

	Funding Sources					
	Fed.	State	University	School System	Teacher Organization	Foundation
58. The experimental development of INTERN PROGRAMS	___	___	___	___	___	___
59. The long term operation of INTERN PROGRAMS	___	___	___	___	___	___
60. The experimental development of BEGINNING TEACHER PROGRAMS	___	___	___	___	___	___
61. The long term operation of BEGINNING TEACHER PROGRAMS	___	___	___	___	___	___

Other: (please specify)_____

Comments:_____

H. Beginning Teachers and Intern Teachers might be compensated in several ways. Below are listed 4 alternatives for compensating INTERNS.

1. Receive partial or full pay as regular first-year teacher
2. Receive proportion of first-year teacher's pay plus university credits for internship
3. Receive university credit plus remission of tuition
4. Receive university credit only

	Method
62. Which of the 4 alternatives would be the most desirable method of compensation?	1 2 3 4
63. Which of the 4 alternatives would be the least desirable method of compensation?	1 2 3 4

Below are listed 4 alternatives for compensating BEGINNINC TEACHERS.

1. No extra compensation
2. Release time from duties
3. Inservice credit
4. Extra pay

		Method
64.	Which of the 4 alternatives would be the most desirable method of compensation?	1 2 3 4
65.	Which of the 4 alternatives would be the least desirable method of compensation?	1 2 3 4

Other: (please specify)_____

_____

Comments:_____

_____

I. Cooperating experienced teachers might be compensated in a number of ways (money, credits, time). Four of these methods of compensation are listed below:

1. Regular pay, plus release time in proportion to number of inductees supervised
2. Regular pay, release time, and course credit
3. Regular pay, release time, and additional pay for each inductee supervised
4. Regular pay, release time, and pay at an hourly rate for each hour of supervision

		Method
66.	Which way would be the most desirable of compensating cooperating experiences teacher who are involved with INTERN PROGRAMS?	1 2 3 4
67.	Which way would be the least desirable of compensating cooperating experienced teachers who are involved with INTERN PROGRAMS?	1 2 3 4
68.	Which way would be the most desirable method of compensating cooperating experienced teachers who are involved with BEGINNING TEACHER PROGRAMS?	1 2 3 4
69.	Which way would be the least desirable method of compensating cooperating experienced teachers who are involved with BEGINNING TEACHER PROGRAMS?	1 2 3 4

Other: (please specify)_____

_____

Comments:_____

_____

Appendix G

Characteristics and Functions of A Mentor

Bova, B. M., & Phillips, R. R. The mentoring relationship as an educational experience.

Appendix G

CHARACTERISTICS AND FUNCTIONS OF A MENTOR

1. One of relatively high organizational status who by mutual consent takes an active interest in the career development of another person. (Sheehy, 1976, p. 151)
2. A guide who supports the person's dream and helps put it into effect in the world (Woodlands Group, 1980, p. 131)
3. One defined not in terms of the formal role, but in terms of the character of the relationship and the function it serves. A mentor's primary function is to be a transitional figure, one who fosters the younger person's development, a mixture of parent and peer. (Levinson, 1978, p. 98)
4. A non-parental career role model who actively provides guidance, support and opportunities for the protege. The function of a mentor consists of role model, consultant/advisor and sponsor. (Sheehy, p. 131)
5. One who personalizes the modeling influences for the protege by a direct involvement not necessarily implied by a role model. Thus, in addition to being a role model, the mentor acts as a guide, a tutor coach, and a confident. (Botlon, p. 198)
6. One who possesses sincere generosity, compassion and concern. They listen in the Rogerian sense, displaying feelings as well as ideas. (Woodlands Group, p. 920)
7. One who is receptive to looking objectively at accomplishments and giving encouragement, and also running interference for proteges being groomed for higher level jobs. (Thompson, 1979, p. 30)

8. A mentor may act as a host and guide welcoming the initiate into a new occupational and social world and acquainting the protege with its values, customs, resources and cast of characters. (Levinson, p. 98)
9. A mentor is a person who shares "the dream"--not necessarily a consciously formulated career goal but takes a cherished perception of self (ego ideal). (Misserian, 1982, p. 87)
10. Mentors are influential people who significantly help proteges reach major life goals. They have the power--through who or what they know--to promote welfare, training or career. (Phillips-Jones, 1982, p. 21)

(Bova & Phillips, 1984, p. 17)

Appendix H

Eclectic Profile of the Mentor-Protege Relationship

Clawson, J. G. Mentoring in managerial careers.

Appendix H

Eclectic Profile of the Mentor-Protege Relationship

1. Mentor-protege relationships grow out of personal willingness to enter the relationships and not necessarily out of formal assignments. Thus, MPRs may not coincide with formal hierarchies (H. Levinson, 1968, 1969; Super, 1969; Freilich, 1964).
2. MPRs pass through a series of developmental stages (Gabarro, 1978; Strauss, 1973; Super, 1952; Super et al., 1963) characterized as formation, duration, and fruition. Each stage has a characteristic set of activities and tasks.
3. Mentors are generative, that is, interested in passing on their wisdom and experience to others (Dalton, Thompson, & Price 1977; Elkind, 1970; Friedlander & Green, 1977; D. Levinson et al., 1976).
4. Mentors try to understand, shape, and encourage the dreams of their proteges. Mentors often give their blessings on the dreams and goals of their proteges. (D. Levinson et al., 1976; D. Levinson, 1978).
5. Mentors guide their proteges both technically and professionally; that is, they teach things about the technical content of a career and things about the social organization and patterns of advancement of a career. (Bray, Campbell, & Grant 1974; Hill, 1976; D. Levinson et al., 1976; MacGregor, 1960).
6. Mentors plan their proteges learning experiences so that they will be stretching but not overwhelming and successful. Proteges are encouraged to accept responsibility, but are not permitted to make large mistakes (Atella, 1974; Cantor, 1958; Gabarro, 1978;

Hinrichs, 1966; McClelland (in Kolb et al.), 1974; D. Levinson et al., 1978; Polanyi, 1958; Super, 1963; White, 1959).

7. Mentors provide opportunities for their proteges to observe and participate in their work by inviting their proteges to work with them (D. Levinson et al., 1976; H. Levinson, 1968).
8. Proteges learn in MPRs primarily by identification, trial and error, and observation (D. Levinson et al., 1976; H. Levinson, 1968; Polanyi, 1958).
9. Both mentors and proteges have high levels of respect for each other (Densmore, 1975; Gabarro, 1978a; 1978b; Homans, 1950).
10. Mentors sponsor their proteges organizationally and professionally (Dalton, Thompson, & Price, 1977; D. Levinson et al., 1978; Schein, 1978).
11. MPRs have levels of affection similar to parent-child relationships (Braden, 1976; Bretano, 1870; Denty, 1906; Hall, 1976; Strauss, 1973; Yoshino, 1968).
12. MPRs end in a variety of ways, often either with continuing amiability or with anger and bitterness (D. Levinson, 1978).

Appendix I

What and How Proteges Learned

Bova, B. M., & Phillips, R. R. The mentoring relationship as an educational experience.

WHAT AND HOW PROTEGES LEARNED

Role	What Learned	How Learned
Traditional Mentor - strict, demanding - bonding, emotional ties	survive in organization non-career related be-behaviors (family)	role model "filling in" for mentor at meetings, listening
Supportive Bosses or Mobile Superiors	introduction to profession (survey of general professional skills) how to move from organization to organization	role model supervised tasks or activities completing assignments that were more and more difficult
Organization Sponsors	survive in organization patience, pay attention to skills & getting experience	on own, good guess, intuition & insight, then see if approved by outcome
Professional Career Mentors	vocational & career decision-making visibility	role model role practice
Patrons Invisible Godparents Unsuspecting-Hero Role Models	not appropriate	
Family Career Mentors	decision-making	role model experience

(Bova & Phillips, 1982, p. 11)